

# Some Remarks on the Plücker Relations

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## 1. THE PLÜCKER RELATIONS

Let  $V$  denote a finite-dimensional vector space. An  $s$ -vector  $P \in \Lambda^s V$  is called *decomposable* or *simple* if it can be written in the form

$$P = u \wedge v \wedge \cdots \wedge w \quad \text{for } u, v, \dots, w \in V.$$

We shall use in the following both Penrose's abstract index notation and exterior calculus with the conventions of [3].

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $P \in \Lambda^s V$  be an  $s$ -vector. Then  $P$  is decomposable if and only if one of the following conditions holds:*

1.  $i(\Phi)P \wedge P = 0$  for all  $\Phi \in \Lambda^{s-1} V^*$ . In index notation  $P_{[abc\dots d]P_{ef]g\dots h} = 0$ .
2.  $i(i_P \Psi)P = 0$  for all  $\Psi \in \Lambda^{s+1} V^*$ .
3.  $i_{\alpha_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha_{s-k}} P$  is decomposable for all  $\alpha_i \in V^*$ , for any fixed  $k \geq 2$ .
4.  $i(\Psi)P \wedge P = 0$  for all  $\Psi \in \Lambda^{s-2} V^*$ . In index notation  $P_{[abc\dots d]P_{ef]g\dots h} = 0$ .
5.  $i(i_P \Psi)P = 0$  for all  $\Psi \in \Lambda^{s+2} V^*$ .

*Proof.* (1) These are the well known classical Plücker relations. For completeness' sake we include a proof. Let  $P \in \Lambda^s V$  and consider the induced linear mapping  $\sharp_P : \Lambda^{s-1} V^* \rightarrow V$ . Its image,  $W$ , is contained in each linear subspace  $U$  of  $V$  with  $P \in \Lambda^s U$ . Thus  $W$  is the minimal subspace with this property.  $P$  is decomposable if and only if  $\dim W = s$ , and this is the case if and only if  $w \wedge P = 0$  for each  $w \in W$ . But  $i_\Phi P$  for  $\Phi \in \Lambda^{s-1} V^*$  is the typical element in  $W$ .

(2) This well known variant of the Plücker relations follows by duality (see [4]):

$$\begin{aligned} \langle P \wedge i(\Phi)P, \Psi \rangle &= \langle i(\Phi)P, i_P \Psi \rangle = \langle P, \Phi \wedge i_P \Psi \rangle = \\ &= (-1)^{(s-1)} \langle P, i_P \Psi \wedge \Phi \rangle = (-1)^{(s-1)} \langle i(i_P \Psi)P, \Phi \rangle. \end{aligned}$$

(3) This is due to [6]. There it is proved using exterior algebra. Apparently, this result is included in formula (4), page 116 of [7].

(4) Another proof using representation theory will be given below. Here we prove it by induction on  $s$ . Let  $s = 3$ . Suppose that  $i_\alpha P \wedge P = 0$  for all  $\alpha \in V^*$ . Then for all  $\beta \in V^*$  we have  $0 = i_\beta(i_\alpha P \wedge P) = i_{\alpha \wedge \beta} P \wedge P + i_\alpha P \wedge i_\beta P$ . Interchange  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  in the last expression and add it to the original, then we get  $0 = 2i_\alpha P \wedge i_\beta P$  and in turn  $i_{\alpha \wedge \beta} P \wedge P = 0$  for all  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , which are the original Plücker relations, so  $P$  is decomposable. Now the induction step. Suppose that  $P \in \Lambda^s V$  and that  $i_{\alpha_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha_{s-2}} P \wedge P = 0$  for all  $\alpha_i \in V^*$ . Then we have

$$0 = i_{\alpha_1}(i_{\alpha_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha_{s-2}} P \wedge P) = i_{\alpha_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha_{s-2}} P \wedge i_{\alpha_1} P = i_{\alpha_2 \wedge \cdots \wedge \alpha_{s-2}}(i_{\alpha_1} P) \wedge (i_{\alpha_1} P)$$

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for all  $\alpha_i$ , so that by induction we may conclude that  $i_{\alpha_1}P$  is decomposable for all  $\alpha_1$ , and then by (3)  $P$  is decomposable.

(5) Again this follows by duality.  $\square$

Let us note that the following result (Lemma 1 in [2]), a version of the ‘three plane lemma’ also implies (3):

Let  $\{P_i : i \in I\}$  be a family of decomposable non-zero  $k$ -vectors in  $V$  such that each  $P_i + P_j$  is again decomposable. Then

- (a) either the linear span  $W$  of the linear subspaces  $W(P_i) = \text{Im}(\#_{P_i})$  is at most  $(k+1)$ -dimensional
- (b) or the intersection  $\bigcap_{i \in I} W(P_i)$  is at least  $(k-1)$ -dimensional.

Finally note that (1) and (4) are both invariant under  $\text{GL}(V)$ . In the next section we shall decompose (1) into its irreducible components in this representation.

If  $\dim V$  is high enough in comparison with  $s$ , then (4) seemingly comprises less equations.

## 2. REPRESENTATION THEORY

In order efficiently to analyse (1) and (4) it is necessary to take a small excursion through representation theory. An extensive discussion of Young tableau may be found in [1]. Here we shall just need

$$Y^{s,t} \equiv \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline & & \\ \hline \vdots & \vdots & \\ \hline & & \\ \hline \end{array} \\ \vdots \\ \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \\ \hline \end{array} \end{array} \right\}^t$$

regarded as irreducible representations of  $\text{GL}(V)$ . Then, as special cases of the Littlewood-Richardson rules, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Lambda^s V \otimes \Lambda^s V &= Y^{s,s} \oplus Y^{s+1,s-1} \oplus Y^{s+2,s-2} \oplus Y^{s+3,s-3} \oplus \dots \oplus Y^{2s,0} \\ \Lambda^{s+1} V \otimes \Lambda^{s-1} V &= Y^{s+1,s-1} \oplus Y^{s+2,s-2} \oplus Y^{s+3,s-3} \oplus \dots \oplus Y^{2s,0} \\ \Lambda^{s+2} V \otimes \Lambda^{s-2} V &= Y^{s+2,s-2} \oplus Y^{s+3,s-3} \oplus \dots \oplus Y^{2s,0} \end{aligned}$$

and from the first two of these (1) says that  $P \otimes P \in Y^{s,s}$ . In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} (\star\star) \quad \Lambda^s V \odot \Lambda^s V &= Y^{s,s} \oplus Y^{s+2,s-2} \oplus \dots \\ \Lambda^s V \wedge \Lambda^s V &= Y^{s+1,s-1} \oplus Y^{s+3,s-3} \oplus \dots \end{aligned}$$

so we can also see the equivalence of (1) and (4) without any calculation. Having decomposed  $\Lambda^s V \odot \Lambda^s V$  into irreducibles, it behoves one to investigate the consequences of having each irreducible component of  $P \otimes P$  vanish separately. The first of these gives us another improvement on the classical Plücker relations:

**Theorem 2.** *An  $s$ -form  $P$  is simple if and only if the component of  $P \otimes P$  in  $Y^{s+2,s-2}$  vanishes.*

*Proof.* The representation  $Y^{s+2,s-2}$  may be realised as those tensors

$$T_{a_1 b_1 a_2 b_2 \dots a_{s-2} b_{s-2} c d e f}$$

which are symmetric in the pairs  $a_j b_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, s-2$ , skew in  $c d e f$ , and have the property that symmetrising over any three indices gives zero. The corresponding Young projection of

$$P_{a_1 a_2 \dots a_{s-2} c d} P_{b_1 b_2 \dots b_{s-2} e f}$$

is obtained by skewing over  $c d e f$  and symmetrising over each of the pairs  $a_j b_j$  for  $j = 1, 2, \dots, s-2$ . Its vanishing, therefore, is equivalent to the vanishing of

$$Q_{[cd} Q_{ef]} \quad \text{where } Q_{cd} = \alpha^{a_1} \beta^{a_2} \dots \gamma^{a_{s-2}} P_{a_1 a_2 \dots a_{s-2} cd}$$

for all  $\alpha^a, \beta^a, \dots, \gamma^a \in V^*$ . According to (4), this means that  $Q_{cd}$  is simple. Therefore, the theorem is equivalent to criterion (3) of Theorem 1.  $\square$

Notice that this generally cuts down further the number of equations needed to characterise the simple  $s$ -vectors. The simplest instance of this is for 4-forms:  $P$  is simple if and only if

$$P_{[abcd} P_{ef]gh} = P_{[abcd} P_{efgh]}.$$

Written in this way, it is slightly surprising that one can deduce the vanishing of each side of this equation separately. Theorem 2 is optimal in the sense that the vanishing of any other component or components in the irreducible decomposition  $(\star\star)$  of  $P \otimes P$  is either insufficient to force simplicity or causes  $P$  to vanish. In the case of four-forms, for example,

$$P_{[abcd} P_{efgh]} = 0$$

if  $P = v \wedge Q$  for some vector  $v$  and three-form  $Q$ . On the other hand, if the  $Y^{4,4}$  component of  $P \otimes P$  vanishes, then arguing as in the proof of Theorem 2 shows that  $P = 0$ .

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